Course introduction, Recursion and Complexity of Algorithms

Data Structures and Algorithms Monday 8th March, 2021

TALLE Dept. Computer Science

Faculty of Computer Science and Engineering Ho Chi Minh University of Technology, VNU-HCM

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Overview

1 Data structures and Algorithms: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

2 Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

3 Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation of HCMUT-CNCP

Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

P and NP Problems

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data
Algorithm
Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Pr



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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems

What is Data?



(Source: datorama.com)

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Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O

What is Data?

Data

Data is fact that has been translated into a form that is more convenient to calculate, analyze.

Example

 Numbers, words, measurements, observations or descriptions of things.

- Qualitative data: descriptive information,
- Quantitative data: numerical information (numbers).
 - Discrete data can only take certain values (like whole numbers)
 - Continuous data can take any value (within a range)

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Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O

Data type

Class of data objects that have the same properties.

Data type

- 1 A set of values
- 2 A set of operations on values

Example

Туре	Values	Operations
integer	$-\infty,, -2, -1,$	*,+,-,%,/,
	$0,1,2,,\infty$	C++;++,T Â D
floating point	$-\infty,,0.0,,\infty$	*,+,-,/,
character	\0,, 'A' , ' 'B', C .M	J ₹, ⊳N.C P
	'a', 'b',, \sim	

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Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation
Big-O Notation
Using Big-O

Data structure

What is a data structure?

- 1 A combination of elements in which each is either a data type or another data structure
- 2 A set of associations or relationships (structure) that holds the data together

Example

An array is a number of elements of the same type in a specific order.

	1	2	3	5	3 ČģI I	1 43/1	J 21C	N 34P
--	---	---	---	---	---------	--------	-------	-------

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Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation
Big-O Notation
Using Big-O

Abstract data type

The concept of abstraction:

- Users know what a data type can do.
- How it is done is hidden.

Definition

An **abstract data type** is a data declaration packaged together with the operations that are meaningful for the data type.

- 1 Declaration of data LIEU SU'U TA
- Oeclaration of operations HCMUT-CNCP
- 3 Encapsulation of data and operations

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Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Abstract data type

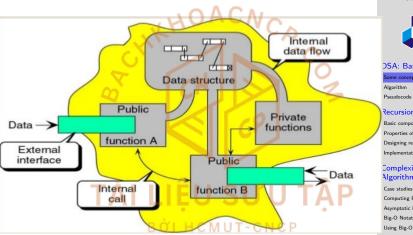


Figure: Abstract data type model (source: Slideshare)

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Some concepts on data

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems

Example: List

Interface

- Data: sequence of elements of a particular data type
- Operations: accessing, insertion, deletion

Implementation

- Array
- Linked list

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Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Algorithm

What is an algorithm?

The logical steps to solve a problem.

What is a program?

Program = Data structures + Algorithms(Niklaus Wirth)

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Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O

Pseudocode

 The most common tool to define algorithms

- English-like representation of the algorithm logic
- Pseudocode = English + code

relaxed syntax being easy to read

instructions using basic control structures (sequential, conditional, iterative) Basic concepts on DSA

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Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

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Pseudocode

Algorithm Header

- Name
- Parameters and their types
- Purpose: what the algorithm does
- Precondition: precursor requirements for the parameters
- Postcondition: taken action and status of the parameters
- Return condition: returned value

Algorithm Body

- Statements
- Statement numbers: decimal notation to express levels
- Variables: important data | HCMUT-CNCP
- Algorithm analysis: comments to explain salient points
- Statement constructs: sequence, selection, iteration

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Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Pseudocode: Example

Algorithm average

Pre nothing

Post the average of the input numbers is printed

1 i = 0

sum = 0

while all numbers not read do

4 | i = i + 1

read number

sum = sum + number

end

8 average = sum / iAI LIEU SUU IAP

print average

10 End average

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Algorithm 1: How to calculate the average

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Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms $Implementation \ in \ C/C++$

Complexity of Algorithms

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Recursion and the basic components of recursive algorithms TAI LIEU SUU TAP

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Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O

P and NP Problems

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Definition

Recursion is a repetitive process in which an algorithm calls itself.

- Direct : A → A
 Indirect : A → B → A

Example

Factorial

$$Factorial(n) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \times (n-1) \times \dots \times 2 \times 1 & \text{if } n > 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using recursion:

Using recursion:
$$Factorial(n) = \begin{bmatrix} & \text{BOIHCMUT-CNCP} \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ & n \times Factorial(n-1) & \text{if } n > 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O P and NP Problems

Basic components of recursive algorithms

Two main components of a Recursive Algorithm

- Base case (i.e. stopping case)
- General case (i.e. recursive case)

Example

Factorial

$$Factorial(n) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \times Factorial(n-1) & \text{if } n > 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 base permits general

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Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems

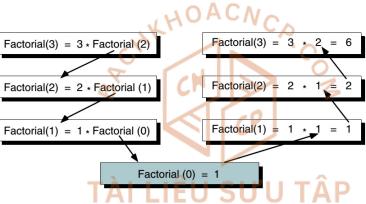


Figure: Factorial (3) Recursively

(Source: Data Structure - A pseudocode Approach with C++

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Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation
Big-O Notation
Using Big-O
P. and NP Problems

Factorial: Iterative Solution

- **Algorithm** iterativeFactorial(n)
- 2 Calculates the factorial of a number using a loop.
- 3 Pre: n is the number to be raised factorially
- 4 Post: n! is returned result in factoN
- 5 i = 1
- 6 factoN = 1
 - while $i \le n$ do
 - factoN = factoN * i
- i = i + 1
 - end
- return factoN
- 12 End iterativeFactorial

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Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Factorial: Recursive Solution

- 1 Algorithm recursiveFactorial(n)
- 2 Calculates the factorial of a number using a recursion.
- 3 Pre: n is the number to be raised factorially
- 4 Post: n! is returned
- 5 if n = 0 then
- return 1
- 7 else
- 8 return n * recursiveFactorial(n-1)
- 9 end
- 0 End recursiveFactorial BOTHCMUT-CNCP

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Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

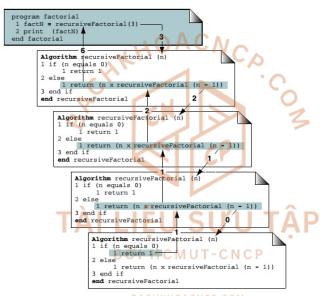
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Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

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Figure: Calling a Recursive Algorithm (source: Data Structure - A pseudocode Approach with C++)

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Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O

Using Big-O P and NP Problems

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems

Properties of all recursive algorithms

- A recursive algorithm solves the large problem by using its solution to a simpler subproblem
- Eventually the sub-problem is simple enough that it can be solved without applying the algorithm to it recursively.
 - \rightarrow This is called the base case.

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Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation
Big-O Notation
Using Big-O

P and NP Problems

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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

The Design Methodology

Every recursive call must either solve a part of the problem or reduce the size of the problem.

Rules for designing a recursive algorithm

- Determine the base case (stopping case).
- 2 Then determine the general case (recursive case).
- 3 Combine the base case and the general cases into an algorithm.

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Algorithm Pseudocode

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Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Implementation in C/C+

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation
Big-O Notation
Using Big-O

P and NP Problems

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Limitations of Recursion

 A recursive algorithm generally runs more slowly than its nonrecursive implementation.

 BUT, the recursive solution shorter and more understandable. SU

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Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O P and NP Problems

Greatest Common Divisor

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Definition

$$\gcd(a,b) = \left[\begin{array}{c} a & \text{if } b = 0 \\ b & \text{if } a = 0 \\ \gcd(b,a \mod b) & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

Example

$$gcd(12, 18) = 6$$

 $gcd(5, 20) = 5$ TAI LIỆU SƯU TÂP

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation
Big-O Notation
Using Big-O
P and NP Problems

Greatest Common Divisor

- 1 Algorithm gcd(a, b)
- 2 Calculates greatest common divisor using the Euclidean algorithm.
- 3 Pre: a and b are integers
- 4 Post: greatest common divisor returned
- 5 if b = 0 then
- 6 return a
- 7 end
- 8 if a = 0 then
 - return b
- end
- return gcd(b, a mod b)
- 12 End gcd

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Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

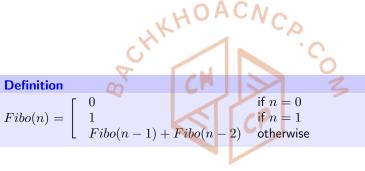
Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation
Big-O Notation
Using Big-O
P and NP Problems



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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

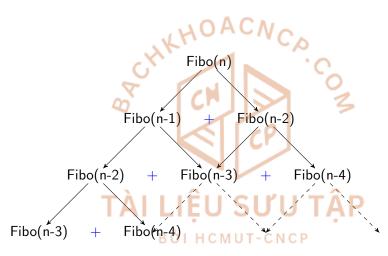
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O



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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

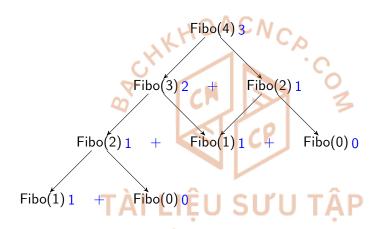
Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O



Result

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0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, ...

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Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms Case studies

Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation
Big-O Notation
Using Big-O

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- 1 Algorithm Fibo(n)
- 2 Calculates the nth Fibonacci number.
- 3 Pre: n is postive integer
- 4 Post: the nth Fibonnacci number returned
- 5 **if** n = 0 or n = 1 **then**
- 6 return n
- 7 end
- 8 return Fibo(n-1) + Fibo(n-2) EU SU'U TAF
- 9 End fib

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DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Implementation in C/C+

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O

P and NP Problems

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No	Calls	Time	No	Calls	√ Time
1	1	< 1 sec.	11	287	< 1 sec.
2	3	< 1 sec.	12	465	< 1 sec.
3	5	< 1 sec.	13	753	< 1 sec.
4	9	< 1 sec.	14	1,219	< 1 sec.
5	15	< 1 sec.	15	1,973	< 1 sec.
6	25	< 1 sec.	20	21,891	< 1 sec.
7	41	< 1 sec.	25	242,785	1 sec.
8	67	< 1 sec.	30	2,692,573	7 sec.
9	109	< 1 sec.	35	29,860,703	1 min.
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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation
Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems

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The Towers of Hanoi

Move disks from Source to Destination using Auxiliary:

- 1 Only one disk could be moved at a time.
- 2 A larger disk must never be stacked above a smaller one.
- 3 Only one auxiliary needle could be used for the intermediate storage of disks.



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Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion

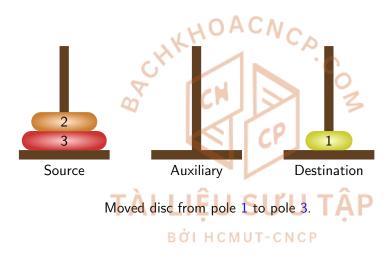
Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O

The Towers of Hanoi



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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

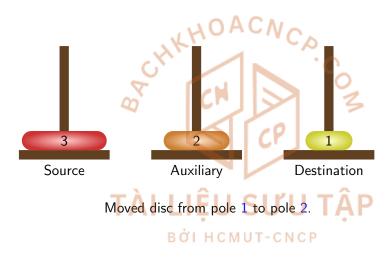
Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems

The Towers of Hanoi



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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

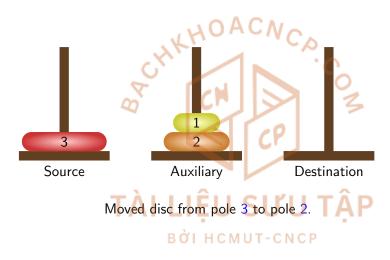
Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O



Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms

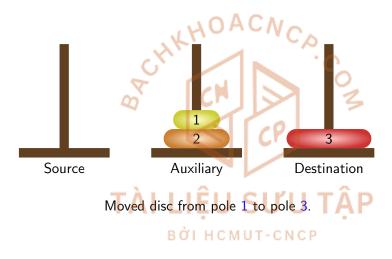
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O



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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms

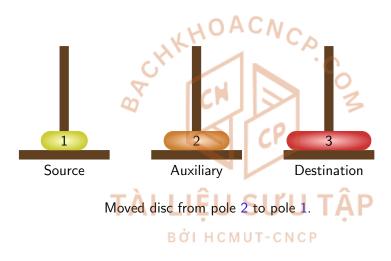
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of

Algorithms Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems



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DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms

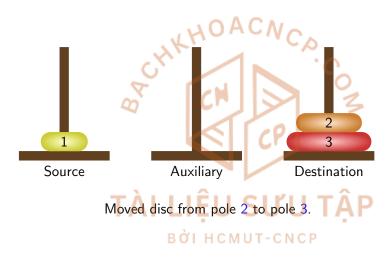
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O



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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms

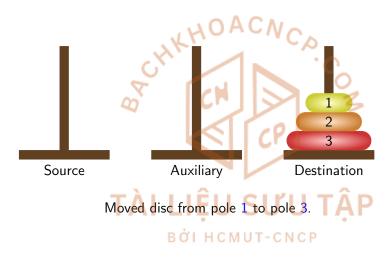
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of

Algorithms
Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems



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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data
Algorithm
Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

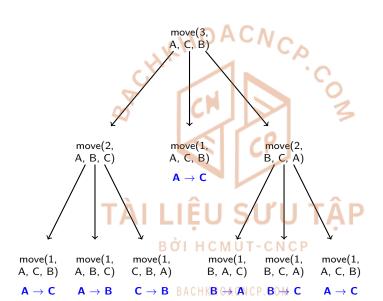
Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O



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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

implementation in C/C+

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation
Big-O Notation
Using Big-O
P and NP Problems

- 1 Algorithm move(val disks <integer>, val source <character>, val destination <character;, val</pre> auxiliary < character>)
- Move disks from source to destination
- 3 Pre: disks is the number of disks to be moved
- Post: steps for moves printed
- print("Towers: ", disks, source, destination, auxiliary)
 - if disks = 1 then
 - print ("Move from", source, "to", destination)
- else
- move(disks 1, source, auxiliary, destination) q
 - move(1, source, destination, auxiliary)
 - move(disks 1, auxiliary, destination, source)
 - end

10

- return
- 14 End move

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Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion

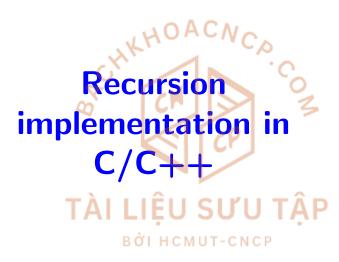
Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O



Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Fibonacci Numbers

```
#include <iostream>
  using namespace std;
3
   long fib(long num);
5
   int main ()
       int num;
7
       cout << "n<sub>11</sub>=11":
8
       cin >> num;
9
       cout << "fibonacci(" << num <<
10
             << fib(num) << endl;
11
        return 0:
12
13
14
   long fib(long num)
15
       if (num == 0 | | num (== 11) - CNCP
16
17
            return num:
18
       return fib(num - 1) + fib(num - 2);
19
```

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation
Big-O Notation
Using Big-O
P and NP Problems

```
#include <iostream>
  using namespace std;
3
  void move(int n, char source,
                                  char auxiliary);
              char destination,
5
6
  int main () {
     int numDisks:
8
     cout << "Please, enter, number, of, disks:";</pre>
9
     cin >> numDisks:
10
     cout << "Start Towers of Hanoi" << endl;</pre>
11
     move(numDisks,
12
     return 0:
13
14
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```

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data
Algorithm
Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O

```
void move(int n, char src,
             char dest, char aux){
2
       if (n == 1)
3
           cout << "Move_from,"
                << src << ",,to,,"
5
                 << dest << endl;
       else {
7
           move(n - 1, src, aux, dest);
8
           move(1, src, dest, aux);
9
           move(n - 1, aux, dest, src);
10
11
12
13
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```

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++ Complexity of

Algorithms Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O

Using Big-O P and NP Problems



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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O

Fibonacci numbers: Naive solution

```
FibRecurs(n)
1 if n \le 1 then
       return n
  else
       return FibRecurs(n - 1) + FibRecurs(n - 2)
  end
      Algorithm 2: Naive recursive fibonacci solution
```

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

FibRecurs(n)

- 1 if $n \le 1$ then return n
- else
 - return FibRecurs(n 1) + FibRecurs(n 2)
- end

Let T(n) denote the number of lines of code executed by FibRecurs(n).

• If n < 1:

TÀI L^{T(n)} 5ƯU TẬP

• If n > 2:

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DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O

FibRecurs(n)

- 1 if $n \le 1$ then 2 return n
- else
 - return FibRecurs(n 1) + FibRecurs(n 2)
- 5 end

Let T(n) denote the number of lines of code executed by **FibRecurs(n)**.

• If $n \le 1$:

TAI LTP 32SUU TAP

• If $n \geq 2$:

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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

FibRecurs(n)

- if $n \le 1$ then return n
- 3 else
 - return FibRecurs(n 1) + FibRecurs(n 2)
- 5 end

Let T(n) denote the number of lines of code executed by **FibRecurs(n)**.

• If $n \le 1$:

TÀI LTP 3°SƯU TẬP

• If $n \geq 2$:

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$$T(n) = 3$$
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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components $Properties \ of \ recursion$ Designing recursive algorithms $Implementation \ in \ C/C++$

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

FibRecurs(n)

- if $n \le 1$ then return n
- else
 - return FibRecurs(n 1) + FibRecurs(n 2)
- 5 end

Let T(n) denote the number of lines of code executed by **FibRecurs(n)**.

• If $n \le 1$:

TÀI LTRESCUU TẬP

• If $n \geq 2$:

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$$T(n) = 3 + T_A(n_{\text{KH}} 1)_{\text{CNCP.COM}}$$

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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O P and NP Problems

FibRecurs(n)

- if $n \le 1$ then return n
- else
 - return FibRecurs(n 1) + FibRecurs(n 2)
- 5 end

Let T(n) denote the number of lines of code executed by **FibRecurs(n)**.

• If $n \le 1$:

TÀI LTP 3 SƯU TẬP

• If $n \geq 2$:

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$$T(n) = 3 + T(n_{\rm H\,\overline{KH}}\,1) + T(n_{\rm O\,\overline{M}}\,2)$$

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DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

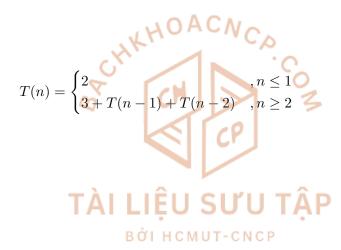
Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O P and NP Problems



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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

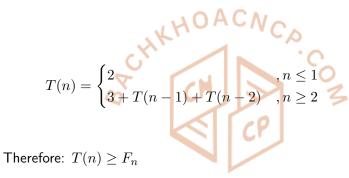
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems



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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

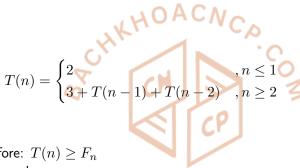
Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime



Therefore: $T(n) \geq F_n$

For example:

 $T(100) \approx 1.77 \times 10^{21}$ takes 56,000 years at 1GHz.

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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime



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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems



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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems



0 + 1 = 11 + 1 = 2



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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O P and NP Problems

Dept. Computer Science



Basic concepts

on DSA

DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems

Imitate hand computation: 0, 1, 1, 2, 3

0 . 1

0 + 1 = 1 1 + 1 = 21 + 2 = 3



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Imitate hand computation:

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5

$$0 + 1 = 1$$

$$1 + 1 = 2$$

$$1 + 2 = 3$$

$$2 + 3 = 5$$

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

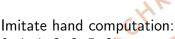
Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime



0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8

$$0 + 1 = 1$$

$$1 + 1 = 2$$

$$1 + 2 = 3$$

$$2 + 3 = 5$$

$$3 + 5 = 8$$

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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

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FibList(n)

- 1 Create an array with length n, F[0...n]
- $\mathbf{2} \ F[0] \leftarrow 0$
- $F[1] \leftarrow 1$
- 4 for $i \leftarrow 2$ to $n \ 1$ do

5
$$F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$$

- 6 end
- 7 return F[n]

Algorithm 5: Efficient algorithm for Fibonacci numbers

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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O

FibList(n)

- 1 Create an array with length n+1, F[0...n]
- $F[0] \leftarrow 0$
- $F[1] \leftarrow 1$
- 4 for $i \leftarrow 2$ to $n \mid 1$ do
- $F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$
- $\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{5} & P[i] \leftarrow P[i-1] + P[i] \end{array}$
- 6 end
- ${m r}$ return F[n]
 - T(n) = 2n + 2. So T(100) = 202. UU TAP
 - Easy to compute. BÖI HCMUT-CNCP

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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O P and NP Problems

FibList(n)

- 1 Create an array with length n+1, $\mathsf{F}[\mathsf{0...n}]$
- **2** $F[0] \leftarrow 0$
- $F[1] \leftarrow 1$
- 4 for $i \leftarrow 2$ to $n \mid 1$ do
- 5 | $F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$
- 6 end
- $\mathbf{7}$ return F[n]
 - T(n) = 2n + 2. So T(100) = 202.
 - Easy to compute. BÖI HCMUT-CNCP

Moral: The right algorithm makes all the difference.

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

on DSA

Dept. Computer Science

Basic concepts



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O P and NP Problems

FibList(n)

- 1 Create an array with length n+1, F[0...n]
- $\mathbf{2} \ F[0] \leftarrow 0$
- $F[1] \leftarrow 1$
- 4 for $i \leftarrow 2$ to n by 1 do
 - $F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$
- end
- return F[n]

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FibList(n)

- 1 Create an array with length n+1, F[0...n]
- **2** $F[0] \leftarrow 0$
- $F[1] \leftarrow 1$
- 4 for $i \leftarrow 2$ to n by 1 do
- 5 | $F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$
- 6 end
 - return F[n]

2n+2 lines of code. Does this really describe the runtime of the algorithm?

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

FibList(n)

- 1 Create an array with length n+1, F[0...n]
- $\mathbf{2} \mid F[0] \leftarrow 0$
- $F[1] \leftarrow 1$
- 4 for $i \leftarrow 2$ to n by 1 do
 - $F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$
- 6 end
 - return F[n]

Line 1: Depends on memory management system.

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DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

FibList(n)

- 1 Create an array with length n+1, F[0...n]
- $\mathbf{2} \ F[0] \leftarrow 0$
- $F[1] \leftarrow 1$
- 4 for $i \leftarrow 2$ to n by 1 do

$$F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$$

- end
- return F[n]

Line 2, 3: Assignment CNCP

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

FibList(n)

- 1 Create an array with length n+1, F[0...n]
- $F[0] \leftarrow 0$
- $F[1] \leftarrow 1$
- 4 for $i \leftarrow 2$ to n by 1 do
- $F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$
- 6 end
- ${f 7}$ return F[n]

Line 4: Increment, comparison, branch.

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

FibList(n)

- 1 Create an array with length n+1, F[0...n]
- $\mathbf{2} \ F[0] \leftarrow 0$
- $F[1] \leftarrow 1$
- 4 for $i \leftarrow 2$ to n by 1 do
- 5 $F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$
- 6 end
 - return F[n]

Line 5: Lookup, assignment, addition of big integers.

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DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Runtime Analysis

FibList(n)

- 1 Create an array with length n+1, F[0...n]
- $\mathbf{2} \ F[0] \leftarrow 0$
- $\mathbf{3} \ F[1] \leftarrow 1$
- 4 for $i \leftarrow 2$ to n by 1 do

$$F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$$

- 6 end
- return F[n]

Line 7: Loopup, return MUT-CNCP

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O P and NP Problems

To figure out how long this simple program would actually take to run on a real computer, we would also need to know things like:

Speed of the Computer



Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

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To figure out how long this simple program would actually take to run on a real computer, we would also need to know things like:

- Speed of the Computer
- 2 The System Architecture



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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O

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To figure out how long this simple program would actually take to run on a real computer, we would also need to know things like:

- Speed of the Computer
- 2 The System Architecture
- 3 The Compiler Being Used



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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O

To figure out how long this simple program would actually take to run on a real computer, we would also need to know things like:

- Speed of the Computer
- 2 The System Architecture
- 3 The Compiler Being Used
- 4 Details of the Memory Hierarchy

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Computing Runtime: Problem

Figuring out accurate runtime is a huge mess.

 In practice, you might not even know some of these details.

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O

Computing Runtime: Goals

Want to:

- Measure runtime without knowing these details
- Get results that work for large inputs.

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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation Using Big-O P and NP Problems



Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Idea, Problem and Solution

CHKHOACNCA

Idea

All of these issues can multiply runtimes by (large) constant.

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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Idea. Problem and Solution

Idea

All of these issues can multiply runtimes by (large) constant. So measure runtime in away that ignores constant multiples.



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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Idea. Problem and Solution

Idea

All of these issues can multiply runtimes by (large) constant. So measure runtime in away that ignores constant multiples.

Problem and Solution

Unfortunately, 1 second, 1 hour, 1 year only differ by constant multiples.

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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Idea, Problem and Solution

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Idea

All of these issues can multiply runtimes by (large) constant. So measure runtime in away that ignores constant multiples.

Problem and Solution

Unfortunately, 1 second, 1 hour, 1 year only differ by constant multiples.

⇒ Consider ASYMPTOTIC RUNTIMES. How does runtime scale with input size.

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DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

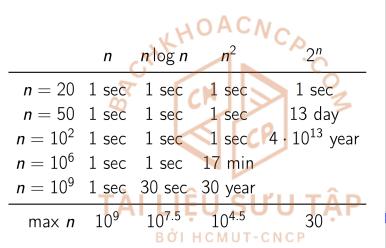
Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Approximate Runtimes



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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

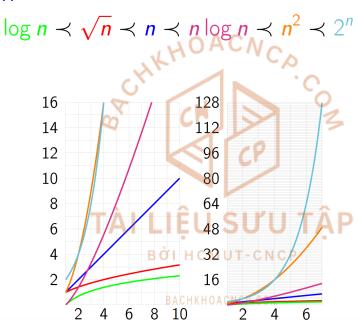
Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O

Approximate Runtimes



Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components $Properties \ of \ recursion \\ Designing \ recursive \ algorithms \\ Implementation \ in \ C/C++$

Complexity of Algorithms

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O



Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Definition

Given functions f(n) and g(n), we say that f(n) is O(g(n))or $f \leq g$ if there are positive constants c and n_0 such that:

$$f(n) \le c.g(n), \forall n \ge n_0$$

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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Definition

Given functions f(n) and g(n), we say that f(n) is O(g(n))or $f \prec q$ if there are positive constants c and n_0 such that:

$$f(n) \le c.g(n), \forall n \ge n_0$$

f is bounded above by some constant multiple of g.

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Basic concepts on DSA

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

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$$f(n) \le c.g(n), \forall n \ge n_0$$

Example

$$3n^2 + 5n + 2 = O(n^2)$$
 since if $n \ge 1$,

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Sig-O Notation

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Definition

Given functions f(n) and g(n), we say that f(n) is O(g(n)) or $f \leq g$ if there are positive constants c and n_0 such that:

$$f(n) \le c.g(n), \forall n \ge n_0$$

Example

$$3n^2 + 5n + 2 = O(n^2)$$
 since if $n \ge 1$, $3n^2 + 5n + 2 \le 3n^2 + 5n^2 + 2n^2 = 10n^2$

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

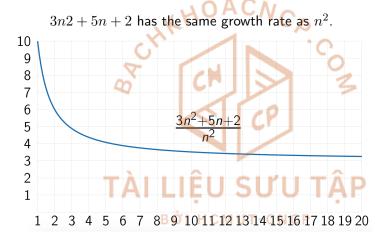
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Growth Rate



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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Using Big-O



Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Using Big-O

We will use Big-O notation to report algorithm runtimes. This has several advantages:

- Clarifies Growth Rate
- Cleans up Notation ⇒ Makes algebra easier.
- Can ignore complicated details.

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Basic concepts on DSA

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

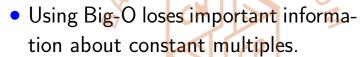
Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Using Big-O: Warning



Big-O is only asymptotic.



Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Multiplicative constants can be omitted:



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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

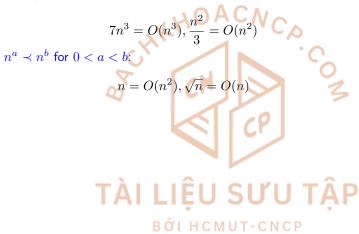
Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Multiplicative constants can be omitted:

$$7n^3=O(n^3), \frac{n^2}{3}=O(n^2)$$

$$n^a \prec n^b \text{ for } 0 < a < b:$$

$$n=O(n^2), \sqrt{n}=O(n)$$

$$n^a \prec b^n \text{ for } a>0, b>1:$$

$$n^5=O(\sqrt{2}^n), \sqrt{n^{100}}=O(1.1^n)$$

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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Multiplicative constants can be omitted:

$$7n^{3} = O(n^{3}), \frac{n^{2}}{3} = O(n^{2})$$

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$$n = O(n^{2}), \sqrt{n} = O(n)$$

$$n^{a} \prec b^{n} \text{ for } a > 0, b > 1:$$

$$n^{5} = O(\sqrt{2}^{n}), \sqrt{n^{100}} = O(1.1^{n})$$

$$(\log n)^{a} \prec n^{b} \text{ for } a, b > 0:$$

$$(\log n)^{3} = O(\sqrt{n}), n \log n = O(n^{2})$$

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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Big-O Notation Using Big-O

Multiplicative constants can be omitted:

$$7n^3 = O(n^3), \frac{n^2}{3} = O(n^2)$$

$$n^a \prec n^b$$
 for $0 < a < b$:

$$n = O(n^2), \sqrt{n} = O(n)$$

$$n^a \prec b^n$$
 for $a > 0, b > 1$:

$$n^5 = O(\sqrt{2}^n), \sqrt{n^{100}} = O(1.1^n)$$

$$(\log n)^a \prec n^b \text{ for } a, b > 0$$
:

$$(\log n)^3 = O(\sqrt{n}), n \log n = O(n^2)$$

Smaller terms can be omitted: | HCMUT-CNCP

$$n^2 + n = O(n^2), 2^n + n^9 = O(n2)$$

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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Pseudoc

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

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Operation



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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O



Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O



Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Operation

Create an array F[0...n]

$$F[0] \leftarrow 0$$

 $F[1] \leftarrow 1$



Basic components

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

P and NP Problems

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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode Recursion

Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Asymptotic Notation

Basic concepts on DSA.70

Operation

Create an array F[0...n]

 $F[0] \leftarrow 0$

 $F[1] \leftarrow 1$

for i from 2 to n:

Runtime

O(n)

O(1)

O(1)

Loop O(n) times

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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Operation

Create an array F[0...n]

$$F[0] \leftarrow 0$$

 $F[1] \leftarrow 1$

for i from 2 to n:

$$F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$$

Runtime

O(n)

O(1)

O(1)

Loop O(n) time

O(n)

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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Operation

Create an array F[0...n]

 $F[0] \leftarrow 0$

 $F[1] \leftarrow 1$

for i from 2 to n:

 $F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$ return F[n]

Runtime

O(n)

O(1)

Loop O(n) time

Loop O(n) time

O(n) O(1)

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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Operation

Create an array F[0.1]

$$F[0] \leftarrow 0$$
$$F[1] \leftarrow 1$$

for i from 2 to n.

 $F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]$

$$F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-1]$$

return $F[n]$

Total:

Loop O(n)

 $O(n) + O(1) + O(1) + O(n) \times O(n) + O(1) = O(n^2)$

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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components Properties of recursion Designing recursive algorithms Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Other notations

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Definition

For function $f, g: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$, we say that:

- $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ or $f \succeq g$ if for some c, $f(n) \ge c \times g(n)$ (f grows no slower than g).
- $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ or $f \times g$ if f = O(g) and $f = \Omega(g)$ (f grows at the same rate as g).
- f(n) = o(g(n)) or $f \prec g$ if $\frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$ (f grows slower than g).

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime
Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Asymptotic Notation

- Lets us ignore messy details in analysis.
- Produces clean answers.
- Throws away a lot of practically useful information.

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O



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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data
Algorithm
Pseudocode

_

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

- P: Polynomial (can be solved in polynomial time on a deterministic machine).
- NP: Nondeterministic Polynomial (can be solved in polynomial time on a nondeterministic machine).

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Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data
Algorithm
Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

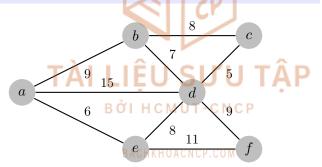
Using Big-O P and NP Problems

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Travelling Salesman Problem:

A salesman has a list of cities, each of which he must visit exactly once. There are direct roads between each pair of cities on the list.

Find the route the salesman should follow for the shortest possible round trip that both starts and finishes at any one of the cities.



Basic concepts on DSA

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DSA: Basic concepts Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Recursion

Basic components
Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

Travelling Salesman Problem: Deterministic machines f(n) = n(n-1)(n-2)...1 = O(n!)NP problem b 15

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

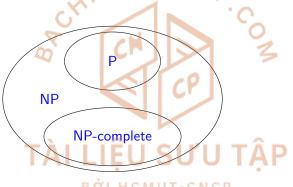
Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Computing Runtime Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O

NP-complete: NP and every other problem in NP is polynomially reducible to it.



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P = NP?

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DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data

Algorithm

Pseudocode

Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion

Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation Big-O Notation

Using Big-O



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Basic concepts on DSA

Dept. Computer Science



DSA: Basic concepts

Some concepts on data Algorithm

Pseudocode Recursion

Basic components

Properties of recursion
Designing recursive algorithms

Implementation in C/C++

Complexity of Algorithms

Case studies
Computing Runtime

Asymptotic Notation

Big-O Notation

Using Big-O